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PATERNAL ATTACHMENT AND LOSS OF SELF IN
LATE ADOLESCENT FEMALES

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Psychology

by
Joan McLaurin
December 1998

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Approved by:


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ABSTRACT

Previous research has found that *maternal* attachment is significantly correlated with females' loss of self during middle and late adolescence. The present study analyzed the effect of *paternal* attachment on loss of self in late adolescent females. Participants were 106 18- to 25- year- old college undergraduate female students who completed a questionnaire assessing paternal attachment, paternal gender role attitude, loss of self, and demographic information. Results showed that paternal attachment was significantly and inversely related to all four measures of loss of self, i.e., the Silencing the Self Scale (Jack, 1991), the Physical Appearance Subscale (Harter, 1985), the Self-Perception Profile (Harter, 1985), and Rosenberg's (1965) Global Self-Worth Scale, indicating that late adolescent females who experienced more secure paternal attachment (i.e., higher levels of communication, trust, and warmth) were more likely to have positive body images, feel more academically competent, have higher levels of self-worth, and utilize less self-silencing. Paternal androgyny was

found to contribute significantly to females' ability to maintain their sense of self, especially in the areas of physical appearance and academic competence. Results provide support for the hypotheses that secure paternal attachment and paternal androgyny may be important factors to loss of self in late adolescent females by raising their daughters' self-esteem, positive body image, feelings of academic competence, and their capacity to speak their minds.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

There is an increasing body of clinical and research literature on the negative consequences for adolescent females growing up in our culture. These writings suggest that many girls find the adolescent years a time of growing confusion between the past (where they felt safe and assured), the present (where they now feel unsure about themselves and their future), and what they think and feel (and know), i.e., a kind of "loss of self" (Brown & Gilligan, 1992). With the onset of adolescence, girls appear to lose the resiliency and optimism they once had, along with their assertive and energetic personalities, and they instead become less inclined to take risks or show curiosity and they become more deferential and self-critical (Pipher, 1994). These experiences appear to also manifest themselves in an increased incidence among young females of depression, anger, declines in self-esteem and self-confidence, declines in academic achievement, the development of eating disorders and co-dependent behavior, drug or alcohol abuse, self-mutilation, and suicidal tendencies

(Cowan, Bommersbach & Curtis, 1995; Gratch, Basset & Attra, 1995; Green, Lipson & Crowley, 1997; Jack, 1991; Jack & Dill, 1992; Miller, 1993; Pipher, 1994; Pipher, 1995; Rogers, 1993).

Research to date has looked at cultural as well as familial factors (e.g., parenting styles and early maternal attachment security) as contributing to the loss of self experienced by adolescent females. The purpose of the current study, by contrast, is to examine the influence of paternal attachment security on loss of self.

Loss of Self

Loss of self is described as the doubting of one's perceptions, knowledge, and experiences (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Rogers, 1993; Pipher, 1994). An indicator of loss of self is loss of "voice," or "self-silencing" (Jack, 1991). "Self-silencing" is the suppression of both the depth and breadth of one's knowledge in a situation where an individual is adversely influenced or intimidated by others (Brown & Gilligan, 1991). For example, Brown and Gilligan (1990) maintain

that females' voices change from being strong and confident in the early years (i.e., ages seven and eight), to being confused and defensive in the later years (i.e., ages twelve and thirteen). They refer to this as the "silencing" of girls in American society. Adolescent females also tend to become elusive and slow to trust. Their voices go "underground" (i.e., they become repressed), hidden beneath a false image that they adopt in order to keep themselves within the realm of what is considered to be acceptable in our society. Their speech becomes more tentative and less articulate (Pipher, 1994), such as when an individual makes a decision to do something that he or she knows is not right because they are trying to be a part of the crowd (e.g., not wearing their seat belt or drinking). According to Brown and Gilligan (1992), adolescence is a time of disconnection where girls tend to cover over or forget what they have experienced and known. Their speech becomes more riddled with the phrase "I don't know", and they begin to fret over speaking versus not speaking, knowing versus not knowing, and feeling versus

not feeling. Their ability to speak in a "clear voice" and express what they knew prior to adolescence now becomes "muffled" and confused (Gilligan, 1987). "Voice" (i.e., the ability to clearly express their thoughts and feelings) is viewed as being central to girls' and women's experience and exercise of power. These changes in adolescence can have implications for older females as "loss of voice" can last well into adulthood (Pipher, 1994).

As a part of this "loss of self," Pipher (1994) sees the culture as splitting adolescent girls into true and false selves. Adolescent girls sense the pressure to become someone they are not; i.e., to become beautiful, to learn to get along with everyone and never have bad feelings, (such as anger, passion, sadness, or even too much exuberance), and to preserve relationships at all costs i.e., to become what Brown and Gilligan (1992) call the "perfect girl" (to be explained in detail later). They begin to break away from their true courageous and competent preadolescent selves and begin to adopt these false selves that begin to emerge in early adolescence.

Their calmness is replaced by anxiety, and girls who loved to talk are now more sullen and secretive. An inner division begins to happen where they believe they cannot say or feel or know what they have experienced (Brown & Gilligan, 1992). In short, they begin to "lose" themselves as if they have lost confidence in their very being. Girls begin to speak and act in ways that they think others want them to, and they begin to construct themselves according to someone else's image rather than the way they really are (Jack, 1991). They are responding to subtle and overt pressures from society to cover their true feelings (Brown & Gilligan, 1992).

Our culture does not allow girls to be themselves. There is a tendency for adolescent girls to become selfless or voiceless in relationships and to care for others by diminishing themselves (Gilligan, Rogers, & Noel, 1992-93). Girls struggle to tell the difference between genuine and false or idealized relationships. During adolescence there is a tendency for girls to withdraw from their authentic relationships of middle childhood (i.e., relationships that included the ability

to accept another individual as they are, with the possibility of feeling their pain as well as their joy, and the potential for difference and disagreement).

These authentic relationships may now be viewed as being too dangerous and risky. Differences and potential conflicts are now covered over by a sole concern for niceness and neighborliness as prerequisites for friendship (Brown & Gilligan, 1992). What is thought to cause this is discussed in the following section.

Influences on Loss of Self

Loss of self, and thus loss of voice, occurs when females struggle to be heard in schools, by families, by friends, and in our society. Research to date points to cultural, developmental, and familial influences as having the greatest impact on loss of self (Pipher, 1994; Pipher, 1995).

Culture. Our culture contributes to loss of self in several ways: through socializing males and females differently; through media (e.g., advertising, movies, television, music, and magazines), and through schools.

First, the manner in which our culture socializes

males and females from a very young age is thought to contribute to loss of self. Our culture's sex roles (i.e., the social roles and behaviors that characterize individuals of either sex, Cobb, 1992) encourage girls to be "nice" and to not make waves by speaking their own minds in their efforts to become the "perfect girl." This "perfect girl" is loved by all because she has no bad thoughts and feelings, but is instead always "kind" and "nice." Living under this "tyranny" is thought to cause girls to experience a "series of disassociations between their psyche and body, between self and relationship, between the inner world of thoughts and feelings and the outer world of public knowledge" (Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 33). In this way girls' expressions of feelings and thoughts are controlled, and thus their behavior is orchestrated. This in turn sustains their idealized relationships by not allowing girls to freely express themselves or speak their feelings and thoughts and be heard (Brown & Gillian, 1992). Furthermore, Brown (1991) feels that loss of voice, which includes the loss of feelings and thoughts of both self and others, begins

with preadolescent girls' confusions about roles and pressures to take on negative sex roles and stereotyping in the form of these idealized relationships.

Females are taught that their roles within the culture are ones of service and of creating and maintaining relationships that focus on the primacy and legitimacy of others (Jack, 1991). By contrast, males are taught that their roles within the culture are ones of being rational, independent, making decisions, and taking risks. In other words, they are taught to become independent and self-sufficient (Cobb, 1992). Studies have shown that infants as young as nine-months-old (whose sex is disguised) are perceived by adults as displaying sex-role stereotyped behavior (i.e., behaviors that members of society consider more typical or appropriate for members of one sex) depending on whether the adults were told that the baby was male or a female. The "female" baby was seen as displaying the emotion of fear toward a toy, while the "male" baby was seen as displaying anger toward the same toy (Condry & Condry, 1976).

Gender stereotyping is another way that our culture socializes males and females differently. Although parents may try to protect their children from being exposed to gender stereotyping, it is hard to do so as gender stereotyping is so pervasive in our society (i.e., through the media, teachers, peers and other adults). "Gender stereotyping" refers to the cultural expectations concerning behaviors that are appropriate for either sex (Cobb, 1992). This difference in emphasis has the adolescent female's very sense of being tied into the wishes and wants of others thus helping to make them dependent upon others for their sense of self. This is in contrast to males' development where they tend to be dependent upon themselves which places the power and control over loss of self within oneself and not upon others. Boys are discouraged from expressing attachment needs such as playing with dolls or seeking help, and are pushed to be independent and encouraged to be aggressive and competitive. Girls, however, are consistently reinforced for following parents around and asking for help. They are encouraged to be nurturing and to adopt a

culture of femininity (i.e., to be nice, quiet, and not to express their opinions) and intellectual inferiority (Harrovitch, 1996). These patterns of gender stereotyping are thought to encourage the traits of independence, exploration, and achievement in boys. By contrast, proximity, nurturance, and responsibility are thought to be encouraged and rewarded in girls (Jack, 1991).

Second, our culture contributes to loss of self through the media (e.g., advertising, movies, television, music, and magazines) by sending faulty messages to girls of sexualization and objectification. Females and males are being educated via the media, the same media that bombards the public with sexist messages of cultural scripts that feed females and males with "junk" values. Their values are being strongly influenced by ads, talk shows, popular psychology, music, comics, and movies. The average teen watches twenty-one hours of television each week where they are exposed to messages about drinking, spending money, being sexually active, and how their happiness comes from consuming the right products,

not from within themselves (Pipher, 1994). These influences can hurt females' confidence, lower their levels of self-esteem, and perpetuate negative gender stereotyping. The media allows children to see and hear things that are not appropriate to their developmental needs, and it sends out an alternative set of values that pits children against their own common sense (Pipher, 1996) which leads to a loss of self.

Females may begin to scorn their true bodies and work toward creating the false bodies that they see in the media. Often these false bodies, shown in ads, on television, and in the movies, are exactly that - composites that combine the head of an adult woman, the torso of a young girl, and the legs of a boy. Girls compare these false images with their own bodies and feel anxious and inadequate (Pipher, 1995). The American Association of University Women's (AAUW) annual report (1995-96) also has indicated that there is a connection between body image and loss of self in adolescent females. They cite a study by the University of Maryland's Sociology Department which found that ninth

and tenth grade girls suffer in areas of body image, self-esteem, and loss of self when comparing themselves to images in popular girls' magazines (Outlook, 1997).

Third, the schools also have been implicated in eroding girls' sense of self by ignoring their potentials, teaching demeaning messages, harassing, and sexualizing females. Schools have always treated boys and girls differently. For example, in the classroom boys are twice as likely to be seen as role models, five times as likely to receive teachers' attention and twelve times as likely to speak up in class. Boys receive more classroom attention and detailed instruction than girls, are called on more often and are asked more open-ended and complex questions. They are more likely to be praised for academic and intellectual work, while girls are more likely to be praised for their clothing, behaving properly, and obeying rules. Furthermore, boys are likely to be criticized for their behaviors, while girls are criticized for intellectual inadequacy (Eccles, Adler, & Meece, 1984; Leinhardt, Seewald, & Engle, 1979; Pipher, 1994). This only seems to reinforce our

culture's expectation that girls should be nice, quiet, and not express their opinions. By acting in this manner, our academic institutions are reinforcing the silencing of girls, and as a consequence, in early adolescence, girls are thought to lose their resilience, optimism, and become less curious and inclined to take risks. They also lose their assertive, energetic personalities and become deferential, self-critical, depressed, and their IQ scores drop along with their math and science scores (Pipher, 1994). In addition, schools have been found to affect girls' global self-image in general, and self-esteem in particular (Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Schools silence girls by contributing to a decline in their levels of self-esteem, performance on aptitude tests, and their academic achievement, and these declines may lead to a loss of self.

The American Association of University Women (AAUW) conducted studies on how girls navigate the middle school years. In their study "Girls in the Middle: Working to Succeed," they found that the middle school years are minefields for girls. This is partly due to the very

structure of the schools, which tend to be large and impersonal, and partly from a shift girls make at this time from a focus on achievement to a focus on affiliation. Girls who seem resilient and willful in childhood often lose confidence in early adolescence (Outlook, 1997). Another unfortunate fact of our society is that smart girls are often the girls most rejected by their peers. Their strength is a threat and they are ostracized by their peers for being different and thus they may hide their academic achievement in order to fit in and by doing so perpetuate their loss of self (Pipher, 1994).

Another growing problem for adolescent females is the increasing amount of sexual harassment that they endure in the school settings. Males "tease" females about their bodies and their sexuality, and this harassment has become "more graphic, mean-spirited and unremitting" (Pipher, 1994, p. 104). This not only serves to keep many girls from wanting to go to school, but also serves to reinforce adolescent girls' appearance-consciousness and sex-consciousness which in

turn reinforces their becoming quieter, more fearful of holding strong opinions, more careful of what they say and less honest (i.e., it reinforces a loss of self) (Pipher, 1994).

Developmental influences. Some of the developmental changes in adolescence (e.g., cognitive and biological) are also thought to contribute to loss of self in females.

Cognitive changes from concrete to formal operations may contribute to loss of self in adolescence as teens move into formal-thought patterns (i.e., the ability to think abstractly and flexibly). Most preadolescent females are just beginning to move into formal-operational thought. This immaturity of their thinking not only makes them difficult to reason with, but also makes it harder for them to make decisions. For example, their "extremist" thinking is where they only see the world in black-and-white; they either look fabulous or everything about their looks is wrong. Their "egocentric" thought patterns are where they think and feel that everyone in the world is concentrating on them;

e.g., everyone is staring at the pimple on their forehead. Their emotional reasoning is that if they feel something is true, it must be true; I think I'm fat, therefore I am. Their tendency to overgeneralize is to think from one incident to all cases; I got a "D" on my math quiz, therefore, I am a math "dummy." Furthermore, adolescents utilize what Elkind (1993) calls the "personal fable" which is a belief that bad things will happen to other people, but not to them. These chaotic and unstable thought patterns lead to fluctuations in adolescent girls' sense of self (Pipher, 1994).

Biological changes are rapid and pervasive during the adolescent years, and they also may contribute to loss of self in females. Adolescent girls become more preoccupied with their bodies where they are no longer relaxed and they begin to criticize themselves because the culture suggests to them that their bodies are all wrong. "As adolescent girls enter puberty, their bodies soften and spread out in ways that our culture calls fat. Just at the point when their bodies are becoming rounder, girls are told that thin is beautiful, even imperative"

(Pipher, 1995, p. 55). Girls become looked at as objects of beauty, and they are talked about and judged against standards of perfection. They learn to look at their "looks" and to listen to what people say about them (Brown & Gilligan, 1992). These cultural messages can cause females to scorn their true bodies and work toward false bodies that may contribute to a loss of self (Pipher, 1995).

Familial influences. Families also have been shown in research to contribute to adolescent females' loss of self through the types of parenting styles that are used and the quality of early attachment security.

Although the majority of parents want what is best for their children, parenting styles can vary in terms of the amount of affect, acceptance, and control that is used. Pipher (1994) found that parents who were high in control and high in acceptance (what Baumrind, 1971, termed the "authoritative" parenting style) tend to have teenagers who are independent, socially responsible, and confident. In other words, they are better able to withstand the battle against loss of self. By contrast,

parents who exercise low-control and low-acceptance (Baumrind's "permissive-indifferent" parents) tend to produce teens with a variety of problems, including delinquency and chemical dependency. Parents who are high in control and low in acceptance (Baumrind's "authoritarian" parents) tend to have children who are socially inadequate and lacking in confidence. Parents who are low in control and high in acceptance (Baumrind's "permissive-indulgent" parents) may have teenagers with high impulsivity, low responsibility and low independence (Pipher, 1994). The girls who seemed to be better able to fight against the battle of losing themselves had parents who set firm guidelines and limits, yet encouraged and valued their daughters' input into the families' decisions. These girls knew that their parents loved them and they stayed connected to them in important ways through talking and seeking contact with their parents when they felt the need for guidance (Pipher, 1994).

Loss of self, self-silencing and levels of self-esteem also have been tied to levels of early parental

attachment security. Research to date suggests that adolescent females who are securely attached to their parents fare better in the areas of self-esteem, mental health, psychology, well-being, and self-assertion, and they are less likely to experience loss of self than those who are insecurely attached (Brown & Gilligan, 1992; Jack, 1991; Pipher, 1994; Rogers, 1993).

Americans believe that adolescence is the time when children emotionally separate from their parents. However, several studies have found that the relationship between adolescents and their parents is not severed, but instead remains strong and becomes the vehicle for getting acceptance and validation, and that adolescents place a great deal of importance on their relationship with their parents. Those adolescents who maintain secure relationships with their parents appear to do better in the areas of adolescents' sex role development and levels of individuality than those who do not (Klos & Paddock, 1978; Youniss & Ketterlinus, 1987). In addition, maintaining an attachment to parents during adolescence was found to be supportive for the

adolescents and also to affect their levels of well-being (O'Koon, 1997) and perceived attachment to parents (Lapsley, Rice & Fitzgerald, 1990). Thus, it would seem that adolescents who maintain secure relationships with their parents will have more androgenous sex role development, higher levels of individuality, higher levels of well-being, and higher levels of perceived attachment to parents. In addition, Pipher (1994) found that those adolescents who keep their relationships with their families alive are more likely to hold onto their true selves.

Compared to adolescents who are "insecurely" attached, adolescents "securely" attached to their parents tend to report significantly less negative life changes, higher levels of self-esteem, and had higher scores on measures of self-perceived strengths (Raja, McGee & Stanton, 1992). Close parental relationships experienced by female adolescents were found to be positively associated with self-reports of assertion (Kenny, 1986), and a significant relationship was found between self-esteem scores and the attachment dimensions

of both independence-encouraging and acceptance (McCormick & Kennedy, 1993). Adolescents who were classified as "highly securely attached" reported greater satisfaction with themselves, a higher likelihood of seeking social support, and less symptomatic responses to stressful life events (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). It would appear from the above studies that adolescents who were "securely" attached to their parents might be better protected against loss of self.

Finally, two separate studies found levels of maternal attachment to be significantly correlated to loss of self during adolescence (Curtis, 1997; Koch, 1997). A history of secure maternal attachment was found to act as a protective mechanism against loss of self in a study utilizing 18 to 23 year- old female college students. Curtis (1997) found that the traits observed in securely-attached individuals i.e., self-worth, self-definition and trust, are thought to be incongruent with pervasive doubting of one's knowledge, perceptions, and experiences that are characteristic of loss of self (Curtis, 1997). A second study using 14- to 16-year- old

adolescent females indicated that the greater the maternal attachment experienced by the daughter, the less likely she was to sacrifice either her self or her voice (Koch, 1997). These findings suggest that adolescent females who experience secure maternal attachment tend to have a greater sense of self, autonomy, and voice.

Paternal influences and loss of self. Studies have also found that positive paternal involvement has been associated with less gender stereotyping, less sex-typing of gender identity, less gender labeling, less typical perception (i.e., the way adolescent females think adult males and females should act) of adult sex role differences, and greater independence in females. In addition, higher levels of social competence and life skills, higher levels of independent and vigorous functioning, and more assertive behavior in females have been linked to positive paternal involvement (Amanto, 1987; Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Schroeder, 1993; Siegal, 1987). One could interpret the above findings of gender independence in females, higher levels of social

competence and life skills, and more assertive behavior to all be buffers against loss of self.

Second, fathers also have been found to influence their daughters in terms of their biological and cognitive development. Fathers' more physical type of playing style has been described as helping to produce a broader range of arousal for children which helps to "stretch" them physically (e.g., wrestling and playing tag) (Roberts, 1996). A study by Nugent (1991), for example, found that higher paternal involvement in caregiving has an independent effect on the infant's cognitive functioning at one year and contributed to 14% of the variance in outcome. Another behavior that has been connected to paternal acceptance and attachment is eating disorders (e.g., anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa). Fathers who showed higher levels of acceptance and attachment were less likely to have daughters with eating disorders (Danielak, 1995; Goodwin, 1996). Therefore, it would seem from the above studies that fathers' ways of influencing their daughters' development

in these areas would help to buffer against daughters' loss of self.

Third, fathers have been found to influence their children's psychological development in the areas of self-esteem, well-being, adjustment, levels of functioning and problem behavior. Pipher (1994) researched father-daughter relationships and found that daughters who had supportive fathers also had higher levels of self-esteem and a greater sense of well-being. It also has been shown that high degrees of paternal nurturance and paternal positive involvement during childhood were found to facilitate female college students' personal adjustment and their adjustment to college (Fish & Biller, 1973; Lapsley, Rice & FitzGerald, 1990). Thus, fathers' positive influences on their daughters' psychological development also could be interpreted as a way of helping their daughters maintain their sense of self.

Fourth, a study that investigated fathers' and daughters' relationships and mothers' and daughters' relationships by looking at the degree of nurturing that

daughters received from fathers (versus their mothers) indicated that the quality of daughters' relationships with their fathers was a better predictor of the daughter's comfort with her own femininity than the daughter's relationship with their mother. Pipher (1995) found that adolescent females experienced increased dissatisfaction with their bodies as they grew older. It would seem that daughters who had a higher quality of relationship with their fathers and thus were more comfortable with their own femininity might be better able to fight against scorning their true bodies which would help to offset loss of self.

Finally, when Pipher researched father-daughter relationships, she found that daughters who had supportive fathers also had higher levels of self-esteem and a greater sense of well-being. A good father-daughter relationship also has been found to moderate the association between family stressors and internalizing problems (Forehand, Wierson, Thomas, Armistead, Kempton & Neighbors, 1991). Therefore, it might follow that the

strength of paternal attachment also might be an integral component of an adolescent female's developing self.

Attachment Theory and Fathers

Although the literature on paternal attachment is not as abundant as the literature on maternal attachment, there is evidence suggesting a link between fathers' attachment style and the outcome of adolescent daughters' social, biological/cognitive, and psychological development, thus, in turn, loss of self.

First, fathers have been found to influence their daughters' social development. Although Pipher (1994) states that fathers have "great power to do harm if they act as socializing agents for the culture, they can crush their daughters' spirits" (Pipher, 1994, p. 117). Rigid fathers limit their daughters' dreams and destroy their self-confidence, and sexist fathers teach their daughters that their value lies in pleasing men and that they should relinquish power and control to men. Pipher also found that fathers (especially nonsexist ones) can be tremendously helpful in teaching their daughters healthy

rebellion against the cultural influences that may heighten girls' loss of self.

Mothers and fathers are thought to exhibit different types of parenting with their children. Mothers typically display need-based parenting, which would include everything from changing diapers to driving kids to school, whereas fathers typically display more of a "play master" role, which is more physical (Parke, 1981). Furthermore, fathers' and mothers' style of playing with their children also have been found to differ (Bridges, Connell, & Belsky, 1988; Horn, 1996). Fathers' more physical play styles have been found to be instrumental in the development of their children's ability to maintain strong, fulfilling social relationships later in life, or what Parke (1981) calls "emotional communication." Emotional communication includes being able to read and accurately interpret nonverbal cues of facial expressions and tone of voice, being able to clearly communicate your emotions to others and finally, being able to listen, know, and understand your own emotional states. These skills allow children to learn

that they can change and have control over both their internal matters or feelings as well as their outside world (Roberts, 1996). These findings suggest that adolescent females who exhibit higher levels of emotional communication would be more likely to clearly communicate their emotions to others and thus be better able to withstand the pressures of loss of self.

Second, feelings of closeness to fathers and secure attachment also have been found to be a significant factor in delaying girls from becoming sexually active (Crouter, Carson, Vicary & Butler, 1988). In addition, fathers' impact on daughters and levels of secure attachment have been shown to affect their capacity for intimacy in that they have been found to be more sensitive and attuned to their friends' needs and were able to express more positive feelings within their friendships and their friendships were longer lasting (Karen, 1994). Another influence of secure paternal attachment is that females asked for and received more positive emotional support, from the community, their friends, and their family members in their first year of

college which not only lends support to attachment as an ongoing process (Valery, O'Connor, & Jennings, 1997), but also suggests the importance of secure paternal attachment in the delaying of sexual activity and longer lasting friendships which might help to facilitate adolescent females in maintaining authentic relationships which may protect against loss of self.

Third, researchers have found positive relations among amount of paternal support, higher levels of self-esteem, a better ability to adjust to their lives circumstances, and attachment security with fathers. They also noted that secure attachment with fathers was connected with higher levels of well-being, higher levels of self-control, higher likelihood of seeking social supports, greater satisfaction with themselves and less symptomatic responses to stressful events (Armsden, & Greenberg, 1987; Lapsley, Kenneth, Rice & FitzGerald, 1990; McCormick & Kennedy, 1994; O'Koon, 1997). In addition, secure attachment with fathers has been found to be connected to adolescent females' higher levels of positive adolescent functioning, less problem behavior,

lower levels of depression and social anxiety, positive perceptions of family expressiveness and cohesion, and higher levels of individuation (Amanto, 1987; Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Kennedy, 1994; LeCroy, 1988; Miller & Lane, 1991; Papini, Roggman & Anderson, 1991; Rice & Paige, 1996). Because loss of self has been linked to lower levels of self-esteem, and girls who hold onto their true selves have been shown to be more likely to keep their relationship with their family alive (Pipher, 1994), it would seem that the above would also hold true for secure paternal attachment being linked to lower levels of loss of self.

Finally, although the literature is lacking, Pipher (1994) has implicated fathers' attitudes concerning sex-role development as influencing their daughters' loss of self. Fathers who display androgynous behavior (i.e., fathers who are free to act without worrying if their behavior is feminine or masculine) can be tremendously helpful in protecting their daughters against loss of self by teaching them healthy rebellion against our cultural definitions of femininity. For example, fathers

could aid their daughters' androgyny by encouraging them to protect themselves and even to fight back against cultural influences through different skills such as learning to change a tire, build a patio, or throw a baseball (Pipher, 1994). One might speculate from the above that adolescent females who perceived their fathers as having more androgynous behaviors would display lower levels of loss of self.

Summary and Purpose of Study

In summary, research to date has investigated the contributions of culture (e.g., the differential socialization of males and females, the impact of media, and the school experience), developmental influences (i.e., social, cognitive, and biological), and familial influences (i.e., parenting styles and quality of early attachment security) on loss of self in adolescent females. However, there are no studies on the effects of paternal attachment on loss of self in late adolescent females, although research on the effects of father involvement on female development suggests a strong link between paternal involvement and loss of self. The

purpose of this study was to extend the research on loss of self by exploring the relationship between paternal attachment security and loss of self in late adolescent females.

Hypothesis 1. Attachment security (i.e., higher levels of paternal communication, trust, and warmth) will be inversely related to loss of self in late adolescent females (and, conversely, insecure paternal attachment would be positively related to loss of self in late adolescent females).

Hypothesis 2. Fathers' degree of androgyny will be positively correlated with females' ability to maintain their sense of self. It is expected that daughters who perceive their fathers to be high in androgyny will experience less loss of self, (and, conversely, daughters who perceived their fathers to be low in androgyny will experience more loss of self).

Hypothesis 3 (exploratory analysis). Finally, the relative influence of paternal attachment and paternal androgyny on the four measures of loss of self (i.e.,

self-silencing, physical appearance, scholastic competence, and self-esteem) will be examined.

It is expected that the findings of this study will increase the understanding of the father-daughter relationship, and further the understanding of the respective (and perhaps differential) roles that mothers and fathers play in their children's development. In addition, it is hoped that a better understanding of the father-daughter relationship will increase the knowledge we have of the developmental processes that females go through and thus would benefit and help to guard against the painful process and personal costs of loss of self.

CHAPTER 2 - METHOD

Participants

Participants were 106 female college students from intact families (to control for the possible effects of divorce and/or single parenting). Participants ranged in age from 18- to 25- years- old ($M = 21.2$ years), and were recruited from undergraduate classes at a mid-sized community college and university in southern California. The sample was ethnically diverse: 44% Caucasian, 23% Hispanic, 16% Asian, 7% Black, (10% "other"). Fifty-two percent of participants' fathers had some college education (A.A. degree or higher); the remaining 48% did not. Participants were recruited through in-class announcements and were offered "extra credit" for their voluntary participation.

Measures

Paternal attachment. Three scales were used to assess paternal attachment. The first was the Paternal Attachment Scale from the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987); the Paternal attachment Scale is a 25-item Likert-type scale (1 = "almost never or never true", 5 = "almost always or

always true") assessing paternal trust (i.e., belief in father's honesty and reliability), communication (i.e., father's ability to give or exchange information), and alienation (i.e., the amount of estrangement toward father) (Appendix A). Bowlby's (1969) theory of attachment was used as the theoretical framework for the development of this scale (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Item responses can be combined to yield a global attachment score or subscale scores for paternal trust, paternal communication, and paternal alienation may be calculated (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Both the subscales and the global scale were utilized in the current study. Higher scores indicate higher levels of each respective factor. Test-retest reliabilities were .93 for paternal attachment in a sample of young adults. Internal reliability for the present study was .93 for paternal trust, .93 for paternal communication, and .86 for paternal alienation.

The second scale used was the Parental Warmth Scale (Kamptner, personal communication), (Appendix B), a short scale designed to assess dimensions of parental warmth as described by Baumrind (1971) and Bowlby (1969) (e.g., "My

father gives me lots of attention") (Kamptner, 1996). Higher scores on the 6-item Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree", 5 = "strongly agree") indicate more perceived warmth toward one's father. Internal reliability for the present study was .94.

The third scale used was Shaver and Hazen's (1987) 3-item attachment classification of participants' perception of their fathers' caregiving behavior. Participants indicated which of these caregiving styles most closely corresponded to their fathers' behavior. These three categories of caregiving behaviors correspond to Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) three attachment statuses securely attached (i.e., caregiving style characterized sensitivity, warmth, and responsiveness), ambivalently attached (i.e., unstable, stressful, and insensitive), and avoidantly attached (i.e., anger, rigid, and compulsive) (Appendix C).

Paternal gender role attitude. To assess participants' perceptions of their fathers' gender role attitudes, an adapted form of the Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Spence & Helmreich, 1978) was used (Appendix D). This scale, modified slightly to fit the current study,

was used to assess fathers' attitudes toward the rights and roles of women in contemporary society (e.g., "my father feels that women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers"). Items were responded to on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = "disagree strongly", 4 = "agree strongly"). Test-retest reliabilities were .93 for college women and .92 for college men; split-half reliability was .92 based on the responses from 294 college students. Higher scores mean more androgenous attitudes.

Loss of self. Four scales were used to assess loss of self in adolescent females. The first scale used was the 31-item Silencing the Self Scale (STSS) (Jack & Dill, 1992). This scale assesses four dimensions which identify the degree to which individuals: 1) judge the self by external standards, 2) secure attachments by putting the needs of others before the self, 3) inhibit one's self-expression and action to avoid conflict and possible loss of relationship, and 4) present an outer compliant self to live up to feminine role imperatives while the inner self grows angry and hostile (e.g., "I don't speak my feelings in a close relationship even when

the issue is important to me when I know they will cause disagreement") (Appendix E). Items were responded to on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) and were reworded slightly to apply to the current sample. Internal consistency (alpha) ranges from .86 to .94 for the total STSS scores. Test-retest reliability is reportedly excellent. Higher scores mean more silencing of the self and thus more loss of self.

The second scale used was the Physical Appearance Subscale from Harter's (1985) Self-Perception Profile For Children, which assesses the degree to which an individual is satisfied with his or her physical appearance. The original scale consists of 6 items, each containing two components (i.e., one positive and one negative description). In order to obtain consistency with the other measures used in this study, these items were reworded slightly to conform to a Likert-type scale (1 = "never true for me", 5 = "almost always true for me") (e.g., "I wish my height or weight were different") (Appendix F). Reliability for the original scale was .80 to .85 across four samples Harter, 1985). Higher scores imply a more positive body image.

The third scale used was the Scholastic Competence Subscale from Harter's (1985) Self-Perception Profile For Children. This scale assesses individuals' perception of their abilities and competencies regarding their scholastic performance. The original scale consisted of 6 items containing two components each (i.e., one positive and one negative description). Again, in order to obtain consistency with other measures used in this study, scale items were reworded slightly to conform to a Likert-type scale (1 = never true for me, 5 = almost always true for me) (e.g., "I have trouble figuring out the answers in school") (Appendix G). Reliability for the original scale ranged from .76 to .82 across four samples (Harter, 1985). Higher scores mean subjects feel more academically competent.

Finally, Rosenberg's (1965) Global Self-Worth Scale was used to assess global self-worth. The scale consists of 10 Likert-scale items (1 = strongly agree, 4 = strongly disagree) (e.g., "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others") (Appendix H).

Rosenberg, 1965). Internal consistencies for this reportedly range from .77 to .88. Test-retest reliability was .85 (Harter & Rosenberg, 1985). Higher scores mean higher levels of self-worth.

Demographic information. Participants also were asked to report basic background information including their age, sex, and the highest level of education completed by their mothers and fathers (Appendix I).

Procedure. Questionnaires were distributed to volunteers in undergraduate classes. Participants returned the completed forms to the experimenter during the following subsequent two class meetings.

CHAPTER 3 - RESULTS

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was that attachment security would be negatively correlated with loss of self in late adolescent females. As expected, Pearson correlations showed that measures of paternal attachment (i.e., the paternal communication, trust, and alienation subscales of the IPPA, the global paternal attachment scale of the IPPA, and the paternal warmth scale) were significantly and inversely correlated with all four measures of loss of self (Table 1). As Table 1 shows, the paternal attachment measures were significantly and negatively correlated with self-silencing, and positively correlated with self-esteem, a positive body image, and greater feelings of academic competence.

A one-way between subjects ANOVA also was performed utilizing Hazen and Shaver's (1987) attachment statuses (i.e., secure, ambivalent, and avoidant) as the independent variable, with the four measures of loss of self. Results confirmed the correlations above. (The mean and standard deviations for participants for the loss of self measures in the three attachment statuses

are shown in Table 2). Significant difference were found for late adolescent females' amount of self-silencing by the main effect of paternal attachment, $F(2, 105) = 3.39, p \leq .05$. Whereas the means suggested that late adolescent females who experienced secure attachment styles with their fathers utilized less self-silencing than those late adolescent females who experienced ambivalent or avoidant attachment styles with their fathers, post hoc group performances showed no significant differences at the .05 level. Significant differences were also found for positive body image by the main effect of paternal attachment, $F(2, 105) = 6.09, p \leq .01$. Post hoc group performances showed that females who experienced secure attachment styles with their fathers held significantly more positive body images than those who experienced ambivalent or avoidant attachment styles with their fathers. Significant differences were not found for scholastic competence by the main effect of paternal attachment, $F(2, 105) = 2.33, p = .10$. Finally, significant differences were found for global self-worth by the main effect of paternal attachment, $F(2, 105) = 9.16, p \leq .001$. Post hoc group

performances showed that females who experienced secure attachment styles with their fathers had significantly higher levels of global self-worth than those who experienced ambivalent or avoidant attachment styles with their fathers.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was that females whose fathers were more androgynous would be more likely to maintain their sense of self. To test this hypothesis, a Pearson correlation was computed. A significant, positive correlation between father's level of androgyny (i.e., father's attitudes towards women) and females' ability. As Table 3 shows, higher degrees of father androgyny were positively (and significantly) correlated with higher levels of body image, academic competence, and self-worth, and negatively (and significantly) correlated with levels of self-silencing.

Hypothesis 3 (Exploratory Analysis)

The final analysis was an examination of the relative influence of paternal attachment, paternal warmth, and father androgyny (i.e., father's attitudes toward women) on loss of self. A series of stepwise

regression analyses were performed, using each of the four measures of loss of self as the dependent variable. As Table 4 shows, paternal attachment and paternal androgyny accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in the female participants' levels of self-esteem ($R^2 = .28$; $F = 20.7$, $p \leq .001$). Results indicated that for self-silencing, a significant portion of the variance was explained by paternal attachment, ($R^2 = .19$; $F = 25.8$, $p \leq .0000$). For body image, a significant portion of the variance was explained by attitudes toward women, ($R^2 = .14$; $F = 18.6$, $p \leq .001$). Finally, results indicated that for the female participants' scholastic accomplishments, a significant portion of the variance was explained by the father's attitudes toward women, ($R^2 = .14$; $F = 17.6$, $p \leq .001$).

CHAPTER 4 - DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore the important role that fathers execute in their daughters' lives, specifically in the area of loss of self. In addition, this research was an effort to expand on previous studies by Koch (1997) and Curtis (1997) in which they both found secure maternal attachment to be significantly (and negatively) related to loss of self during middle and late adolescence. The results of this study partially support the first prediction that attachment security (i.e., higher levels of paternal communication, trust, and warmth) would be inversely correlated with loss of self in late adolescent females. Paternal attachment security measures were significantly and negatively related to self-silencing, and positively correlated with self-esteem, a positive body image, and feelings of academic competence.

The findings of this study lend support to previous conclusions by Pipher (1994) in which she suggests that secure paternal attachment is an important factor in the fight against loss of self. Pipher states that fathers influence their daughters' social development, and that

they can be tremendously helpful in teaching their daughters healthy rebellion against the cultural influences that may heighten girls' loss of self.

The present study's findings further support the importance of secure paternal attachment in guarding against loss of self. Although secure maternal attachment has been found to be an important stabilizing factor in adolescent females' lives (Koch, 1997; Curtis, 1997), the roles that fathers play have not, until recently, been deemed to be as important. The important male figure that a father in a secure parent-child relationship provides (i.e., higher levels of paternal communication, trust, and warmth) would seem to play an important role in enabling adolescent females to guard against loss of self. If young females could return home at the end of each day to a safe environment, where someone believes in who they are and what they are about, to a place where their thoughts, dreams, and feelings are not only valued but also actively encouraged and validated, it would seem that this would help to promote healthy resistance against loss of self.

Perhaps the dyadic interaction that goes on between fathers and daughters may be more important than the dyadic interaction between mothers and daughters. It is thought that fathers interact with their daughters in somewhat different ways than daughters interact with their mothers. The emerging body of theoretical and empirical work suggests that the father-daughter relationship is a particularly important influence on the child's social relationships outside of the family (MacDonald & Parke, 1984; Parke, MacDonald, Beitel, & Bhavnagri, 1988; Parke, 1995). These researchers have found that the maternal role is oriented more towards caretaking and nurturing the child. Fathers, however, teach their children how to get along with friends and strangers outside of the family. Thus, father's type of physical play has been found to be important for learning about the social aspects of affect.

The findings of this study (i.e., that secure paternal attachment is significantly and positively correlated with positive body image) also supports findings by Danielak (1995) and Goodwin (1996) in which daughters who displayed higher levels of attachment to

their fathers were less likely to have the eating disorders of anorexia nervosa or bulimia. It is thought that fathers who are distant and critical may be agents in their daughter's eating disorders in that this type of behavior may lead their daughters to feel as if they are unworthy of their father's attention and praise. Thus, fathers who closely monitor their daughters' actions while avoiding them emotionally and refusing to accept them may help to create an atmosphere that leads to eating disorders (Goodwin, 1996). Writings by Pipher (1995) also state that adolescent females who have a warm and close relationship with their fathers tend to be more comfortable with their own femininity.

This finding makes sense in light of the bombarding our society does to females in regards to their bodies (for example, clothing commercials that show unrealistically thin girls having a great time with a group of really good-looking guys). These commercials imply that if you can somehow fit into these small-sized jeans, this type of social life will be available to you too. Females are constantly given the message that there is something wrong with their bodies and that they should

quest after thinness, even to the point of self-starvation and mutilation. If, by contrast, a daughter had an environment where a loving and accepting father valued her for who she is and not for how she looks, it would seem that this might help to balance what girls know to be true with the lies that society feeds them.

The finding that secure paternal attachment to fathers was positively correlated to the amount of global self-worth that daughters felt is consistent with findings by Armsden and Greenberg (1989), LeCroy (1998), McCormick and Kennedy (1993), O'Koon (1997), and Pipher (1994) who found secure paternal attachment to be predictive of higher levels of self-esteem and well-being. These researchers all found that their participants who had higher scores on attachment dimensions reported greater satisfaction with themselves, a higher likelihood of seeking social support, and less symptomatic responses to stressful life events. The stable, accepting, and encouraging influence of a secure paternal attachment would seem to encourage adolescent females to believe in themselves and their ability to succeed. Consequently, the more times you succeed and

feel that you are a capable, worthy, and important individual, the higher your level of self-esteem and well-being. Thus, the findings of this study support hypothesis number one in that secure paternal attachments (i.e., higher levels of communication, trust and warmth) were negatively correlated with loss of self in late adolescent females.

The second hypothesis supported the small amount of literature that has implicated fathers' attitudes concerning sex roles as influencing their daughters' loss of self. Pipher (1994) found that fathers who displayed androgenous behavior can be tremendously helpful in protecting their daughters against loss of self by teaching them healthy rebellion against our cultural definitions of femininity. Fathers who encourage their daughters to protect themselves and to fight back against these cultural definitions of femininity enable their daughters to protect themselves against loss of self. Thus, it would seem that fathers who value their daughter's unique individuality, who teach them that they do have the ability to accomplish anything they set their minds to, regardless of what our society typically states

is appropriate for males or females, would offer their daughters a much needed boost in confidence to help them achieve their goals.

It is interesting to note that Koch (1997) did not find a significant relationship between participants' mothers' attitudes toward women's gender roles and loss of self when she tested a group of middle adolescent females (ages 14 to 16) and their amount of *maternal* attachment. Although Koch's findings did not show a significant correlation between feminist attitudes and loss of self, the trend in that direction suggested, that with a larger sample, significance might have been found. (Her sample size was 64.) However, the present study did find *fathers'* attitudes concerning sex-role development as influencing their daughters' loss of self. Thus, it may be that fathers' attitudes concerning sex-role development may be more of a factor in daughters' loss of self than mothers' attitudes concerning sex-role development. Perhaps a reason for this is that fathers tend to express more rigid and salient views about gender stereotyped attitudes and practices in dealing with their children than mothers do (Seifert & Hoffnung, 1991).

Another possible reason for the difference in findings between this study and Koch's (1997) study may be the developmental changes (physical and cognitive) that happen between early to middle adolescence and late adolescence. During late adolescence, changes often occur in cognitive abilities. They learn lessons in beliefs, attitudes, and notice about the various aspects of the self which result in crystallization of personal identity. During this time most teenagers make connections that provide them with initial answers to the questions "Who am I? Who do I belong to? Where will I go with my life?" (Bigner, 1998, p. 360). Perhaps the late adolescent females in the current study had reached a higher level of cognitive reasoning or more abstract thinking than those in Koch's study. Maybe mothers' attitudes concerning sex-role development would show a significance if an older population were tested.

Another reason for the finding from this study might be that females who are consistently exposed to a positive male role model, (i.e., one who helps them feel that they are equal with others - both males and females), might perceive themselves to be more capable

than someone who was consistently being told they could not achieve their goals (i.e., "valuing" of self).

The third analysis of this study was an examination of the relative influence of paternal attachment and paternal androgyny (i.e., attitudes toward women) on loss of self. The findings that higher levels of paternal attachment and paternal androgyny were significant influences on self-esteem lends support to previous findings of Koon (1997), LeCroy (1998), McCormick & Kennedy (1993), and Pipher (1994). These researchers feel that the display of nurturance, affection, and support by fathers may very well reflect a recognition of their daughter's unique skills and abilities which may, in turn, help daughters to evaluate themselves positively (and thus may lead to higher levels of self-esteem).

The second exploratory regression was run to examine the relative influence of paternal attachment, paternal warmth, and father androgyny on self-silencing. Findings of this analysis, (i.e., that paternal attachment influences self-silencing) supports hypothesis one and two of this study, and the findings also are consistent with previous findings by Curtis (1997), Koch (1992),

Pipher (1994), and Pipher (1995). These researchers found that fathers who display nurturance, affection, and support are better able to provide a buffer against the cultural influences of loss of self. As previous theory has stated (Pipher, 1994), daughters who have a "port from the storm;" (i.e., a safe place for them to express their own thoughts and ideas, and a place where they are valued for their own individual strengths and weaknesses) are more likely to be able to stand up for their own beliefs and less likely to succumb to society's norms (and thus less likely to practice self-silencing behaviors).

The third exploratory regression found that paternal attitudes towards women contributed significantly to the participant's perceptions of their physical appearance. This result supports findings by Danielak (1995), Goodwin (1996), Pipher (1994) and Pipher (1995). In their work, they found that fathers whose sex-role orientations were more androgenous had daughters who had less likely to develop eating disorders such as anorexia nervosa or bulimia, due to the father's ability to display higher

levels of communication, acceptance, and problem solving abilities with their daughters.

Finally, the findings from the fourth exploratory regression found that a significant portion of the variance in academic competence was explained by father androgyny. This finding is consistent with findings by Fish and Biller (1973) and Lapsley, Rice, and FitzGerald (1990) who found that fathers who supported their daughters helped to facilitate their adjustment to college. These researchers believe that fathers' attitudes toward women influence their daughters' internal beliefs with regard to their academic competence. Females with fathers who encourage them to go beyond the traditional academic subjects such as secretarial or nursing would seem to fare better than those who are not encouraged. If your father feels that you are capable of becoming anything you want, regardless of what society's traditional norms are, perhaps your chances of succeeding academically would be much better than someone whose father tends to follow the traditional norms.

It is interesting that father's level of androgyny had a larger effect than paternal attachment in the areas of their daughter's physical appearance and academic competency. Perhaps higher levels of communication, trust, and warmth between fathers and daughters offer more of a secure home environment where daughters can obtain a respite from cultural influences. But fathers who have higher levels of androgyny may provide more of a buffer against the cultures values that daughters are able to take with them out into the world.

In conclusion, this study has important implications for parenting practices and specifically for the significant and substantial roles that fathers play in their daughters' development. As previously mentioned, positive paternal attachment has been found to contribute to daughters' development in the areas of biological and cognitive development (i.e., eating disorders), psychological development (i.e., self-esteem, well-being, adjustment, levels of functioning, and problem behavior), and sociological development (i.e., less gender stereotyping, less sex-typing of gender identity, less gender labeling, less typical perception of adult sex

role difference, greater independence in females, higher levels of social competence and life skills, higher levels of independent and vigorous functioning, and more assertive behavior). It would seem from the results of this study that nurturing, affectionate, and supportive fathers who are willing to acknowledge the importance of their daughter's unique individuality, provide a much-needed buffer against the many influences that try to rob them of their sense of self.

This study also has provided an initial investigation into the important role that fathers play in guarding against their daughter's loss of self. It has added to the ever-growing body of developmental literature that further demonstrates the importance of appropriate parenting practices and the importance of valuing and protecting the uniqueness that each individual has to offer our society.

Although this study provided an initial investigation into the important role that fathers play towards guarding against their daughter's loss of self, the study has certain limitations. First, this study may well be limited to the present sample of female,

undergraduates students, from intact families, ages 18 to 25, and may not generalize to other samples. Second, future research should investigate the issues of the different effects that secure paternal attachment has on loss of self on different age groups. It would be interesting, for example, to see whether secure paternal attachment has as great an effect on females who are in early and middle adolescence compared to late adolescence. Perhaps there are developmental differences (e.g., early or late maturers, concrete versus formal thinking patterns) that would result in different findings for different age groups. Also, is *paternal* influence a more salient influence than *maternal* influence in regards to loss of self, or perhaps for just certain dimensions of it? Finally, future research also should investigate the effects of secure paternal attachment and loss of self utilizing a male population to see if secure paternal attachment affects the self-silencing that is beginning to be recognized in males. For example, Gratch, Bassett, and Attra (1995) were surprised to find that male, undergraduate students utilized more self-silencing than women when tested with

the Silencing the Self Scale (STSS). Will the present findings generalize to males or is secure *paternal* attachment more important in facilitating daughters' positive development and secure *maternal* attachment more important in facilitating sons' positive development?

Given all of the above positive influences that fathers have found to exert on their daughters, it is this researcher's hope that this study will serve to further the ever growing body of literature regarding the important role that fathers play in their daughter's lives.

Table 1 -
Pearson Correlation's Between Paternal Attachment
Measures and Loss of Self in Late Adolescent Females
(N=106)

Loss of Self:	Paternal Attachment				
	Pater- nal Trust (IPPA)	Pater- nal Communi- cation (IPPA)	Pater- nal Aliena- tion (IPPA) (e)	Global Attach- ment (IPPA)	Pa- ter- nal Warmth Scale
Self- Silenc- ing (a)	-.42 ***	-.43 ***	.40 ***	-.45 ***	-.36 ***
Body Image (b)	.31**	.33***	-.31**	.34**	.31 ***
Academic Compe- tence (c)	.27*	.23*	-.19*	.25**	.22*
Self- Worth (d)	.45***	.46***	-.48 ***	.49 ***	.42 ***

(a) = Jack and Dill's Silencing the Self Scale (STSS);
higher scores indicate greater loss of voice.

(b) = Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children
(Physical Appearance subscale); higher scores
indicate a more positive body image.

(c) = Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children
(Scholastic Competence subscale); higher scores
indicate greater feelings of academic competence.

(d) = Rosenberg's Global Self-Worth Scale; higher scores
indicate greater self-worth.

Table 1 - (Continued)

Pearson Correlation's Between Paternal Attachment
Measures and Loss of Self in Late Adolescent Females
(N=106)

(e) = Armsden and Greenberg's Inventory of Parent and
Peer Attachment (IPPA); higher scores indicate
greater feelings of alienation from father.

*p \leq .05

**p \leq .01

***p \leq .001

Table 2 -
Means and Standard Deviations for Loss of Self Measures
by Attachment Status
(N = 106)

Loss of Self:	Attachment Statuses (Shaver & Hazen, 1987)					
	1		2		3	
	Secure		Insecure - Ambivalent		Insecure - Avoidant	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Self-Silencing (a)	72.05	18.69	80.18	13.90	82.29	10.53
Body Image (b)	20.25 *	5.20	17.05 **	5.11	15.29 **	5.99
Academic Competence (c)	22.45	3.85	21.44	3.99	17.43	2.99
Self- Worth (d)	39.83 *	5.15	36.08 **	4.21	34.57	5.22 **

(a) = higher scores indicate less self-silencing

(b) = higher scores indicate a more positive body image

(c) = higher scores indicate higher levels of academic competence

(d) = higher scores indicate higher levels of felt self-worth

* = 1

** = 2

1 significantly different from 2

Table 3 -
Correlation Between Late Adolescent Female's Feminism and
Loss of Self
(N = 106)

Loss of Self:	Attitude Towards Female Gender Role
Self-Silencing	-.37***
Body Image	.39***
Academic Competence	.38***
Self-Worth	.46***

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

*** $p \leq .001$

A higher score indicates more silencing of the self and thus more loss of self.

Table 4 -
Exploratory Analysis of Paternal Attachment, Paternal Warmth, and Father Androgyny (i.e., attitudes towards women) on Loss of Self.

(N = 106)

Dependent Variables	Father Attachment		Attitudes Toward Women		Adjusted R ²	F
	β	β	β	β		
Self-Esteem	-.087 (3.40) *	.347	1.95 (2.50) **	.255	.273	20.7 (.000) ***
Self-Silencing	-.370 (-5.08) ***	-.446			.19	25.8 (.000) ***
Body Image			.312 (4.19) ** *	.389	.14	18.5 (.000) ***
Academic Competence			.218 (4.19) ** *	.380	.14	17.59 (.000) ***

* $\leq .05$

** $\leq .01$

*** $\leq .001$

Appendix A: Inventory of Paternal Attachment

Part 1. Please carefully read each item below and choose the best response. Each of the following statements asks about your feelings about your FATHER. Please select the response which best characterizes your relationship with your father. Be sure to answer each item.

Almost Never or Never True	Not Very Often True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always or Always True
1	2	3	4	5

- _____ 1. My father respects my feeling.
- _____ 2. I feel my father does a good job as a father.
- _____ 3. I wish I had a different father.
- _____ 4. My father accepts me as I am.
- _____ 5. I like to get my father's point of view on things I'm concerned about.
- _____ 6. I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my father.
- _____ 7. My father can tell when I'm upset about something.
- _____ 8. Talking over my problems with my father makes me feel ashamed or foolish.
- _____ 9. My father expects too much from me.
- _____ 10. I get upset easily around my father.
- _____ 11. I get upset a lot more than my father knows about.

Almost Never	Not Very	Sometimes	Often True	Almost Always
or Never True	Often True	True		or Always True
1	2	3	4	5

- ____ 12. When we discuss things, my father cares about my point of view.
- ____ 13. My father trusts my judgment.
- ____ 14. My father has his own problems, so I don't bother him with mine.
- ____ 15. My father helps me to understand myself better.
- ____ 16. I tell my father about my problems and troubles.
- ____ 17. I feel angry with my father.
- ____ 18. I don't get much attention from my father.
- ____ 19. My father helps me to talk about my difficulties.
- ____ 20. My father understands me.
- ____ 21. When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding.
- ____ 22. I trust my father.
- ____ 23. My father doesn't understand what I'm going through these days.
- ____ 24. I can count on my father when I need to get something off my chest.
- ____ 25. If my father knows something is bothering me, he asks me about it.

Appendix B: Paternal Warmth Scale

Part II. Please select the response which best characterizes your relationship with your father.

Strongly
Disagree
1

Slightly
Disagree
2

Neither Agree
nor Disagree
3

Slightly
Agree
4

Strongly
Agree
5

- _____ 1. My father is democratic (i.e., fair, listens to my point of view) in his parenting style.
- _____ 2. My father is warm and loving toward me (i.e., is affectionate, praises me, gives me lots of attention).
- _____ 3. I feel very secure in my relationship with my father.
- _____ 4. I have a close relationship with my father.
- _____ 5. My father shows a lot of interest and attention toward me.
- _____ 6. I can talk to my father about anything.

Appendix C: Paternal Attachment Scale

Part III. Each of the following statements represent a description of different types of fathers. Which of the following best describes your FATHER. Place an "X" next to the description that best characterizes your father.

_____ He is generally warm and responsive; he is good at knowing when to be supportive and when to let me operate on my own; our relationship is almost always comfortable, and I have no major reservations or complaints.

_____ He is noticeably inconsistent in his reactions to me, sometimes warm and sometimes not; he has his own needs and agendas which sometimes get in the way of his receptiveness and responsiveness to my needs; he definitely loves me but doesn't always show it in the best way.

_____ He is fairly cold, distant, or rejecting, not very responsive: I am not his highest priority, his concerns are often elsewhere; it's possible that he would just as soon not have had me.

Appendix D: Attitude Toward Women Scale

Part IV. Please think for a moment and respond to each statement as you think it pertained to the way your father felt as you were growing up. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers, just your opinions about each statement.

Disagree Strongly	Disagree Mildly	Agree Mildly	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4

- _____ 1. My father considered swearing and obscenity more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.
- _____ 2. My father felt that since many women worked, or were active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.
- _____ 3. My father felt that it was insulting for women to have to "obey" their husbands.
- _____ 4. My father felt that a woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.
- _____ 5. My father felt that women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.
- _____ 6. My father felt that women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.

Disagree Strongly	Disagree Mildly	Agree Mildly	Agree Strongly
1	2	3	4

- ____ 7. My father felt that a woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.
- ____ 8. My father considered it ridiculous for a woman to be a truck driver and for a man to do housework.
- ____ 9. My father considered that the intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.
- ____ 10. My father felt that women should be given equal opportunity with men to be trained for various jobs.
- ____ 11. My father felt that women who earned as much money as their dates should pay for half of the expenses when they go out together.
- ____ 12. My father felt that sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.
- ____ 13. My father considered, in general, that the father should have more authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.
- ____ 14. My father felt that it was more important for women to have economic and social freedom, than to adopt the "traditional" role of women as wives and mothers.

Disagree Strongly

Disagree Mildly

Agree Mildly

Agree

Strongly

1

2

3

4

____15. My father felt that there were many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

Appendix E: Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale

Part V. Read the following statements and select the number that best describes you.

Mark the answer in the space provided.

Strongly Disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

1

2

3

4

- _____ 1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others.
- _____ 2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
- _____ 3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
- _____ 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
- _____ 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
- _____ 6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
- _____ 7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
- _____ 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
- _____ 9. I certainly feel useless at times.
- _____ 10. At times I think I am no good at all.

Appendix F: Silencing the Self Scale (STSS)

Part VI. Please choose the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that best describes how you feel about each of the statements listed below and write it next to the statement.

Strongly	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- _____ 1. I think it is best to put myself first because no one else will look out for me.
- _____ 2. I don't speak my feelings in a close relationship (even when the issue is important to me) when I know they will cause disagreement.
- _____ 3. Caring means putting the other person's needs in front of my own.
- _____ 4. Considering my needs to be as important as those of the people I love is selfish.
- _____ 5. I find it harder to be myself when I am in a close relationship; than when I am on my own.
- _____ 6. I tend to judge myself by how I think other people see me.
- _____ 7. I feel dissatisfied with myself because I *should* be able to do all of the things that other people my age are supposed to be able to do.
- _____ 8. When my best friend's needs and feelings conflict with my own, I always state mine clearly.

Strongly	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

_____9. In a close relationship, my responsibility is to make the other person happy.

_____10. Caring means choosing to do what the other person wants, even when I want to do something different.

_____11. In order to feel good about myself, I need to feel independent and self-sufficient.

_____12. One of the worst things I can do is to be selfish.

_____13. I feel I have to act in a certain way to please my best friend.

_____14. Instead of risking confrontations in close relationships, I would rather not rock the boat (even if it means giving up something that I want).

_____15. I speak my feelings with my best friend, even when it leads to problems or disagreements.

_____16. Often I look happy enough on the outside, but inwardly I feel angry and rebellious.

_____17. In order for my best friend to like me, I cannot reveal certain things about myself to him/her.

_____18. When my best friend's needs or opinions conflict with mine, rather than asserting my own point of view I usually end up agreeing with him/her.

Strongly	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- ____ 19. When I am in a close relationship I lose my sense of who I am.
- ____ 20. When it looks as though certain of my needs can't be met in a relationship, I usually realize that my needs weren't very important anyway.
- ____ 21. My best friend likes and appreciates me for who I am.
- ____ 22. Doing things just for myself is selfish.
- ____ 23. When I make decisions, other people's thoughts and opinions influence me more than my own thoughts and opinions.
- ____ 24. I rarely express my anger at those close to me.
- ____ 25. I feel that my best friend does not know my real self.
- ____ 26. I think it's better to keep my feelings to myself when they do conflict with my best friend's.
- ____ 27. I often feel responsible for other people's feelings.
- ____ 28. I find it hard to know what I think and feel because I spend a lot of time thinking about how other people are feeling.
- ____ 29. In a close relationship I don't usually care what we do, as long as the other person is happy.

Strongly	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

____30. I try to bury my feelings when I think they will cause trouble in my close relationship (s).

____31. I never seem to measure up to the standards I set for myself.

Appendix G: Self-Perception Profile for Children

Subscale - Physical Appearance

Part VII. Read the following statements and select the number that best describes how you feel. Mark the answer in the space provided..

Never True	Rarely True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True
For Me	For Me	For Me	For Me	For Me
1	2	3	4	5

- _____1. I am happy with the way I look.
- _____2. I wish my height or weight were different.
- _____3. I like my body the way it is.
- _____4. I wish my physical appearance (how I look) was different.
- _____5. I wish something about my face or hair looked different.
- _____6. I think I am good looking.

Appendix H: Self-Perception Profile for Children

Subscale - Scholastic Competence

Part VIII. Read the following statements and select the number that best describes how you feel. Mark the answer in the space provided.

Never True	Rarely True	Sometimes True	Often True	Almost Always True
For Me	For Me	For Me	For Me	For Me
1	2	3	4	5

- ____ 1. I feel that I am just as smart as other people my age.
- ____ 2. I worry about whether I can do the schoolwork assigned to me.
- ____ 3. I am pretty slow in finishing my schoolwork.
- ____ 4. It is easy for me to remember what I learn.
- ____ 5. I do very well at my classwork.
- ____ 6. I have trouble figuring out the answers in school.

Appendix I: Demographic Questionnaire

1. Your age: _____
2. Year of college: _____
3. Your sex (circle one): male female
4. What is your ethnic background? (check one): ___Asian
 ___Black
 ___Caucasian
 ___Hispanic
 ___other (_____)
5. Your parents' current marital status (circle one for each).
 Mother: married separated/divorced widowed other (_____)
Father: married separated/divorced widowed other (_____)
6. If your parents were separated/divorced or widowed, how old were you when this occurred? _____
7. Which parent(s) do you live with now? _____
8. What was the highest grade in school (or level of education) your mother completed?___9. What was the highest grade in school (or level of education) your father completed?
10. Number of brothers
11. Number of sisters
12. Your place in the family (firstborn, second, third, etc.) _____

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